

Fuzzy Subgroups and Chains of Subgroups

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Abstract. The fuzzy subgroups of a group are classified up to a natural equivalence relation. The problem of counting all fuzzy subgroups of a finite group G (up to equivalence) is studied, which amounts to counting all chains of subgroups of G . The number of maximal chains of an arbitrary finite cyclic group is determined. A recurrence relation on m for the number of fuzzy subgroups of a cyclic group of order $p^n q^m$ is given. Using this method, a computer algebra program produces a formula depending on n for any (reasonably small) m . The results and proofs here extend and clarify several topics studied in [8], [9].

Key words: fuzzy subgroup, chain of subgroups, lattice of subgroups.

1. Introduction

Several recent papers tackle the classification of the fuzzy subgroups of a group: 0, [3], [5], [6], [7], [8], [9]. An adequate equivalence relation on the set of all fuzzy subgroups of the group must be defined in order to obtain a meaningful classification. Such a relation is studied in this paper (similar relations were defined in [3], [5]). One can describe it as follows: two fuzzy subgroups are equivalent when they have the same set of level subgroups (see Theorem 6). Counting all classes of equivalence of fuzzy subgroups of a finite group G is shown to be equivalent to counting the chains of subgroups of G that terminate in G . The number of maximal chains of an arbitrary finite cyclic group is determined (Proposition 11). The results we obtain are in the case of a cyclic group G of order $p^n q^m$ (p, q distinct primes): we find a formula (recurrent on m) for the number $\gamma_{n,m}$ of fuzzy subgroups of G (see Theorem 15 and formula (6)). This yields (via computer algebra software) explicit formulas in n for computationally accessible m . and answers a conjecture on $\gamma_{n,m}$ raised in [9]. The counting method we use is simpler and more transparent than in [8] and [9]. An open problem is to generalize the counting method to the case of a cyclic group of any order.

2. Fuzzy subgroups

Let G be a set and let $\mu : G \rightarrow [0,1]$ be a *fuzzy subset* of G . If (G, \cdot) is a group, μ is called a *fuzzy subgroup* of G if, for any $x, y \in G$, $\mu(xy) \geq \min(\mu(x), \mu(y))$ and $\mu(x^{-1}) \geq \mu(x)$ (in fact, $\mu(x^{-1}) = \mu(x)$). Also, $\mu(e) = \max \mu(G)$, where e is the

neutral element of G . For every $\alpha \in [0, 1]$ define the *level subset* ${}_{\mu}G_{\alpha} = \{x \in G \mid \mu(x) \geq \alpha\}$.

A fundamental result is (see for instance [4]):

Proposition 1. *A fuzzy subset $\mu : G \rightarrow [0, 1]$ of a group G is a fuzzy subgroup if and only if all level subsets of μ are subgroups (i.e. $\forall \alpha \in [0, 1]$, ${}_{\mu}G_{\alpha}$ is a subgroup of G).*

We will sometimes write G_{α} instead of ${}_{\mu}G_{\alpha}$ if no confusion can occur. It is obvious that $\forall \alpha, \beta \in [0, 1]$, $\alpha \leq \beta$ implies $G_{\alpha} \supseteq G_{\beta}$. We write \subset , respectively \subsetneq , for strict inclusion. If A is a set, $|A|$ denotes its cardinal.

For a given group G , the task of *classification* of fuzzy subgroups of G leads to the definition of a natural equivalence relation on the set of all fuzzy subsets of G . ([3], [5]). If μ, ν are fuzzy subsets of G , then write $\mu \sim \nu$ if:

- a) for any $x, y \in G$: $\mu(x) > \mu(y) \Leftrightarrow \nu(x) > \nu(y)$.
- b) for any $x \in G$: $\mu(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \nu(x) = 0$.

This is indeed an equivalence relation. We use a (somewhat) weaker condition of fuzzy subset equivalence, dropping the condition b) above.

Definition 2. If μ, ν are fuzzy subsets of G , define:

$$\mu \sim \nu \Leftrightarrow (\forall x, y \in G : \mu(x) > \mu(y) \Leftrightarrow \nu(x) > \nu(y))$$

This approach is motivated by the Theorem 6, which shows this relation is closely related to the concept of level subgroup. First, we collect some basic facts.

Proposition 3. *Suppose G is finite and μ is a fuzzy subgroup of G . Then $\mu(G)$ is a finite set, say $\{\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n\} \subset [0, 1]$, and suppose that $\mu_1 > \dots > \mu_n$. For simplicity purposes, write ${}_{\mu}G_i$ instead of ${}_{\mu}G_{\mu_i}$. Then $\{e\} \subseteq {}_{\mu}G_1 \subset {}_{\mu}G_2 \subset \dots \subset {}_{\mu}G_n = G$. Also, for any $x \in G$ and any $1 \leq i \leq n$:*

$$\mu(x) = \mu_i \Leftrightarrow i = \min\{j \mid x \in {}_{\mu}G_j\} \Leftrightarrow x \in {}_{\mu}G_i \setminus {}_{\mu}G_{i-1} \text{ (we set } {}_{\mu}G_0 = \emptyset\text{)}.$$

Thus, $\mu(e) = \mu_1$. \square

Lemma 4. Let μ, ν be fuzzy subsets of G . Then $\mu \sim \nu$ if and only if for any $n \geq 2$ and any $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in G$,

$$\mu(x_1) > \mu(x_2) > \dots > \mu(x_n) \Leftrightarrow \nu(x_1) > \nu(x_2) > \dots > \nu(x_n).$$

Proof. Standard induction argument (the case $n=2$ is the definition of equivalence). \square

Lemma 5. Let μ, ν be fuzzy subsets of G with $\mu \sim \nu$. Then, for any $x, y \in G$, $\mu(x) = \mu(y) \Leftrightarrow \nu(x) = \nu(y)$.

Proof. Suppose $\mu(x) = \mu(y)$. We cannot have $\nu(x) > \nu(y)$, since this implies (using $\mu \sim \nu$) that $\mu(x) > \mu(y)$. Similarly, $\nu(x) < \nu(y)$ is impossible. \square

Theorem 6. Let μ, ν be fuzzy subsets of the set G . Then the following statements are equivalent:

- i) $\mu \sim \nu$.
- ii) There exists a strictly increasing bijection $\varphi : \text{Im } \mu \rightarrow \text{Im } \nu$ such that $\nu = \mu \circ \varphi$.
- iii) There exists a strictly increasing bijection $\varphi : \text{Im } \mu \rightarrow \text{Im } \nu$ such that ${}_{\mu}G_{\alpha} = {}_{\nu}G_{\varphi(\alpha)}$, for any $\alpha \in \text{Im } \mu$.
- iv) μ and ν have the same set of level subsets: $\{{}_{\mu}G_{\alpha} \mid \alpha \in \text{Im } \mu\} = \{{}_{\nu}G_{\beta} \mid \beta \in \text{Im } \nu\}$.

Proof. $i) \Rightarrow ii)$ Let $\alpha \in \text{Im } \mu$. There exists $x \in G$ such that $\alpha = \mu(x)$. Define $\varphi(\alpha) = \nu(x)$.

This definition of $\varphi(\alpha)$ is correct (it does not depend on the choice of $x \in G$ with $\alpha = \mu(x)$). Indeed, if $y \in G$ is such that $\mu(x) = \mu(y)$, then $\nu(x) = \nu(y)$ by the lemma. The mapping $\varphi : \text{Im } \mu \rightarrow \text{Im } \nu$ is strictly increasing: if $\alpha, \beta \in \text{Im } \mu$, $\alpha < \beta$, then there exist $x, y \in G$ with $\mu(x) = \alpha$, $\mu(y) = \beta$. By the definition of $\mu \sim \nu$, we have $\nu(x) < \nu(y)$, that is, $\varphi(\alpha) < \varphi(\beta)$.

$ii) \Rightarrow iii)$ For any x we have:

$$x \in {}_{\mu}G_{\alpha} \Leftrightarrow \mu(x) \geq \alpha \Leftrightarrow \varphi(\mu(x)) \geq \varphi(\alpha) \Leftrightarrow \nu(x) \geq \varphi(\alpha) \Leftrightarrow x \in {}_{\nu}G_{\varphi(\alpha)}.$$

$$iii) \Rightarrow iv) \quad \{{}_{\nu}G_{\beta} \mid \beta \in \text{Im } \nu\} = \{{}_{\nu}G_{\varphi(\alpha)} \mid \alpha \in \text{Im } \mu\} = \{{}_{\mu}G_{\alpha} \mid \alpha \in \text{Im } \mu\}.$$

$iv) \Rightarrow i)$ For any $x, y \in G$,

$$\mu(x) > \mu(y) \Leftrightarrow y \in {}_{\mu}G_{\mu(y)} \setminus {}_{\mu}G_{\mu(x)} \Leftrightarrow y \in {}_{\mu}G_{\mu(y)} \setminus {}_{\mu}G_{\mu(x)}. \quad \square$$

Corollary 7. Let μ, ν be fuzzy subgroups of the finite group G . Then $\mu \sim \nu$ if and only if μ and ν have the same set of level subgroups (more precisely, $\{\mu G_\alpha \mid \alpha \in [0, 1]\} = \{\nu G_\alpha \mid \alpha \in [0, 1]\}$). \square

Theorem 6 shows that *there is a bijection between the equivalence classes of fuzzy subgroups of G and the set of chains of subgroups of G that terminate in G (the chains of the form $G_1 \subset G_2 \subset \dots \subset G_n = G$, where all G_i 's are subgroups of G).*

Remark 8. Clearly, Theorem 6 can be rephrased for fuzzy subsets of a finite set G (not necessarily fuzzy subgroups of a group G).

3. Counting fuzzy subgroups and chains of subgroups

Theorem 6 and Proposition 3 show that the problem of counting *all fuzzy subgroups of a given finite group G* (up to the equivalence relation defined above) amounts to counting *all chains of subgroups that contain G* . This problem was considered in a series of papers: [5], [6], [7], [8], [9]. The most significant results were obtained in [9], but the formulas given there count *all* chains of subgroups of G , not only the chains ending in G .

Obviously, this problem depends entirely on $L(G)$ (the lattice of subgroups of G), and not on the group itself. This leads to a more general problem:

Problem 9. Given a finite partially ordered set (L, \leq) , with greatest element 1, find (or count) all chains of elements of L that contain 1 (i.e., a chain of the form $x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n = 1, x_i \in L$).

This is a very difficult problem in the general case. We study this problem in the case L is the lattice $L(G)$ of subgroups of a finite cyclic group G . We write $|G|$ for the cardinal of G . In what follows, G is a finite cyclic group unless specified otherwise.

The following proposition summarizes some well known facts.

Proposition 10. a) If $|G| = n$, then there is an order preserving bijection (in fact, a lattice isomorphism) φ between $L(G)$ and the lattice D_n of natural divisors of n (ordered by divisibility), given by $\varphi(H) = |H|, \forall H \in L(G)$.

b) Let $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k}$ be the decomposition of n in distinct prime factors p_1, \dots, p_k . Let $I_m = \{0, 1, \dots, m\}$, endowed with the natural order. On the Cartesian product $I_{\alpha_1} \times I_{\alpha_2} \times \dots \times I_{\alpha_k}$, define the product order by

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k) \leq (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_k) \text{ iff } a_i \leq b_i, \forall i, 1 \leq i \leq k.$$

Then the lattice $(D_n, |)$ is isomorphic to the lattice $(I_{\alpha_1} \times I_{\alpha_2} \times \dots \times I_{\alpha_k}, \leq)$ by $\psi : I_{\alpha_1} \times I_{\alpha_2} \times \dots \times I_{\alpha_k} \rightarrow D_n$, $\psi((a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k)) = p_1^{a_1} \dots p_k^{a_k}$. \square

Given an ordered set (L, \leq) , a chain of elements of L is called a *maximal chain* if it is not properly included in another chain. Section 3 of the paper [8] studies the problem of counting the number of maximal chains of subgroups of a cyclic group. The following result completely solves this problem:

Proposition 11. *Assume p_1, \dots, p_k are distinct primes, $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k$ are positive integers and G is the cyclic group of order $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k}$. Then the number of maximal chains of subgroups of G is the multinomial coefficient*

$$\binom{\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_k}{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k} = \frac{(\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_k)!}{\alpha_1! \dots \alpha_k!}.$$

Proof. By Proposition 10, we count the maximal chains in $(I_{\alpha_1} \times I_{\alpha_2} \times \dots \times I_{\alpha_k}, \leq)$. Write $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_k)$ for elements of $I_{\alpha_1} \times I_{\alpha_2} \times \dots \times I_{\alpha_k}$, and set $\mathbf{c}(i) = c_i$, $1 \leq i \leq k$. Then a maximal chain C has $m = \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_k$ steps and C is of the form

$$C : (0, \dots, 0) = \mathbf{c}_0 < \mathbf{c}_1 < \dots < \mathbf{c}_m = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k)$$

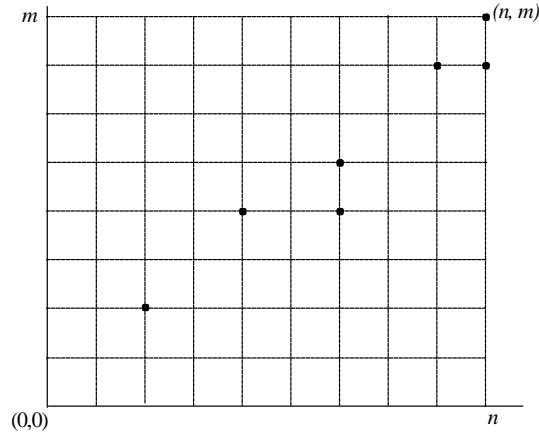
In such a chain, for every step s from 1 to m , \mathbf{c}_s and \mathbf{c}_{s+1} differ in exactly one component and the difference is 1: $(\exists!) i$, $1 \leq i \leq k$, such that $\mathbf{c}_s(i) = \mathbf{c}_{s-1}(i) + 1$ and $\mathbf{c}_s(j) = \mathbf{c}_{s-1}(j)$ for all $j \neq i$. So, the chain C is uniquely determined by the sequence of the places in which consecutive k -uples differ: the mapping that associates to C the sequence $d = (d_s)_{1 \leq s \leq m}$, where d_s is the unique i with $\mathbf{c}_s(i) = \mathbf{c}_{s-1}(i) + 1$, is bijective. We see now that we must count all sequences of the type (d_1, \dots, d_m) , where exactly α_1 of the d_i 's are 1, α_2 of the d_i 's are 2, ..., α_k of the d_i 's are k . This is the number of arrangements of m objects in k boxes, such that the first box contains α_1 objects, the second contains α_2 objects, ..., the k -th contains α_k objects. This number is precisely $\binom{m}{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k}$ (see for instance [10]). \square

3.1. G is cyclic of order p^n

This case is simple. A chain of subgroups of G corresponds to a chain $0 \leq x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_k = n$, where $k \leq n$ and $x_i \in I_n$. These chains are in bijection with the subsets of I_n that contain n and there are 2^n of those.

3.2. G is cyclic of order $p^n q^m$

This case has a geometric interpretation in plane. A chain in $(I_n \times I_m, \leq)$ is an increasing path in the grid of points of integer coordinates with $0 \leq x \leq n$, $0 \leq y \leq m$. The path is increasing in the sense that the successor (c, d) of any point (a, b) of the path must satisfy $(a, b) < (c, d)$. Recall that we must count all chains in $I_n \times I_m$ that



contain (n, m) .

Denote by $C_{n, m}$ the set of all non-empty chains in $I_n \times I_m$ and $F_{n, m}$ by the set of chains containing (n, m) . Let $\gamma_{n, m} = |C_{n, m}|$ and $f_{n, m} = |F_{n, m}|$. We count first $\gamma_{n, m}$. For a chain $\mathbf{c} : \mathbf{c}_0 < \mathbf{c}_1 < \dots < \mathbf{c}_k$ in $C_{n, m}$ and $\mathbf{c}_{k+1} > \mathbf{c}_k$, denote by $\mathbf{c} \circ \mathbf{c}_{k+1}$ the chain obtained by appending \mathbf{c}_{k+1} to \mathbf{c} , i.e. $\mathbf{c} \circ \mathbf{c}_{k+1}$ is $\mathbf{c}_0 < \mathbf{c}_1 < \dots < \mathbf{c}_k < \mathbf{c}_{k+1}$. If C is a set of chains, and $(a, b) \in I_n \times I_m$ is such that (a, b) is strictly greater than any member of any chain in C , let

$$C \circ (a, b) = \{c \circ (a, b) \mid c \in C\}$$

Proposition 12. The following recurrence relation holds, for any $n, m > 1$:

$$\gamma_{n, m} = 1 + 2\gamma_{n, m-1} + 2\gamma_{n-1, m} - 2\gamma_{n-1, m-1} \quad (1)$$

Moreover, we have, for any $n, m \geq 1$:

$$\gamma_{n, m} = \gamma_{m, n}$$

$$\gamma_{n, 0} = \gamma_{0, n} = 2^{n+1} - 1$$

Proof We have (visualize on the grid):

$$C_{n, m} = \{(n, m)\} \dot{\cup} (C_{n, m-1} \cup C_{n-1, m}) \dot{\cup} [C_{n, m-1} \circ (n, m) \cup C_{n-1, m} \circ (n, m)] \quad (2)$$

where $\dot{\cup}$ means disjoint union (the terms of the union are disjoint sets).

Obviously, $|C_{n, m-1} \circ (n, m)| = |C_{n, m-1}| = \gamma_{n, m-1}$. Using the relation $C_{n, m-1} \cap C_{n-1, m} = C_{n-1, m-1}$ and the fact that $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$ (for any sets A and B), we obtain (1) by taking cardinals in (2). Since $(I_n \times I_m, \leq)$ is lattice isomorphic to $(I_m \times I_n, \leq)$ by the mapping $(a, b) \mapsto (b, a)$, we obtain $\gamma_{n, m} = \gamma_{m, n}$. Finally, $\gamma_{n, 0}$ is the number of non-empty chains in $I_n \times \{0\}$, which is simply the number of non-empty subsets in $I_n = \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$; so $\gamma_{n, 0} = 2^{n+1} - 1$. \square

This recurrence relation can be used for an explicit computation of $\gamma_{n, m}$. The connection between $\gamma_{n, m}$ and $f_{n, m}$ is given by:

Proposition 13 For any $n, m \geq 1$, we have:

$$f_{n, m} = \gamma_{n, m} - \gamma_{n-1, m} - \gamma_{n, m-1} + \gamma_{n-1, m-1} \quad (3)$$

$$f_{n, 0} = f_{0, n} = 2^n.$$

Proof The relation follows by taking cardinals in

$$F_{n, m} = C_{n, m} \setminus (C_{n, m-1} \cup C_{n-1, m}),$$

where

$$|C_{n, m-1} \cup C_{n-1, m}| = |C_{n, m-1}| + |C_{n-1, m}| - |C_{n, m-1} \cap C_{n-1, m}| = |C_{n, m-1}| + |C_{n-1, m}| - |C_{n-1, m-1}|.$$

Also, $f_{n,0}$ is the number of subsets of $I_n \times \{0\}$ that contain $(n, 0)$, which is 2^n .

□

Let us compute $\gamma_{n,1}$.

Proposition 14. For any $n \geq 1$, $\gamma_{n,1} = 2^n(2n+4) - 1$.

Consequently, $f_{n,1} = 2^n(n+2)$.

Proof. We have, by Proposition 12:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{n,1} &= 1 + 2\gamma_{n,0} + 2\gamma_{n-1,1} - 2\gamma_{n-1,0} = 1 + 2(2^{n+1} - 1) + 2\gamma_{n-1,1} - 2(2^n - 1) \\ &= 1 + 2^{n+1} + 2\gamma_{n-1,1} \end{aligned}$$

Write t_n instead of $\gamma_{n,1}$. So:

$$\begin{aligned} t_n &= 1 + 2^{n+1} + 2t_{n-1} \\ 2 \cdot | \ t_{n-1} &= 1 + 2^n + 2t_{n-2} \\ &\dots \\ 2^{n-2} \cdot | \ t_2 &= 1 + 2^3 + 2t_1 \\ 2^{n-1} \cdot | \ t_1 &= 1 + 2^2 + 2t_0 \end{aligned}$$

By multiplying these equalities as indicated and adding them, we get:

$$t_n = 1 + 2 + \dots + 2^{n-1} + n \cdot 2^{n+1} + 2^n t_0 = 2^n(2n+4) - 1,$$

since $t_0 = 3$. □

This expression for $\gamma_{n,1}$ (and a similar one for $\gamma_{n,2}$) can be found in [9]. The proofs there involve direct counting in the lattice of subgroups.

For the general case, we prove first that $\gamma_{n,m}$ is of the form $2^n P_m(n) - 1$, where P_m is a polynomial of degree m with rational coefficients and then try to compute $P_m(n)$. This answers a conjecture of [9], where formulas for $\gamma_{n,m}$ for $m \leq 4$ are given (without proof in the cases $m=3$ and 4) and it was conjectured that $\gamma_{n,m}$ is a polynomial in n , of degree m (which is true), and also monic, which is clearly not true.

Theorem 15 *There exists a unique sequence of polynomials $(P_m)_{m \geq 0}$ with rational coefficients, such that, for any $n, m \geq 0$,*

$$\gamma_{n,m} = 2^n P_m(n) - 1 \tag{4}$$

Moreover, $\deg P_m = m$ and

$$P_m(n) = P_m(n-1) + 2 \cdot P_{m-1}(n) - P_{m-1}(n-1) \quad (5)$$

Proof. The uniqueness assertion is clear: if two sequences $(P_m)_{m \geq 0}$ and $(Q_m)_{m \geq 0}$ satisfy the condition, then, for any $m \geq 0$, $P_m(n) = Q_m(n)$ for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, so $P_m = Q_m$.

Proposition 14 shows that the existence part holds for $m \in \{0, 1\}$, with $P_0(n) = 2$, $P_1(n) = 2n + 4$. We prove the other claims by induction on m . By requiring that (4) is true and replacing the γ 's in (1) with P 's, we get (5).

Conversely, if this relation holds for any n and m , then $\gamma_{n,m} = 2^n P_m(n) - 1$ satisfies (1).

Write the formula (5) for $n, n-1, \dots, 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} P_m(n) &= P_m(n-1) + 2 \cdot P_{m-1}(n) - P_{m-1}(n-1) \\ P_m(n-1) &= P_m(n-2) + 2 \cdot P_{m-1}(n-1) - P_{m-1}(n-2) \\ &\dots \\ P_m(1) &= P_m(0) + 2 \cdot P_{m-1}(1) - P_{m-1}(0) \end{aligned}$$

Adding the equalities above, we obtain:

$$P_m(n) = P_m(0) - P_{m-1}(0) + P_{m-1}(n) + \sum_{i=1}^n P_{m-1}(i)$$

Using that $\gamma_{0,m} = 2^0 P_m(0) - 1 = \gamma_{m,0} = 2^{m+1} - 1$, we get $P_m(0) = 2^{m+1}$, so:

$$P_m(n) = 2^m + P_{m-1}(n) + \sum_{i=1}^n P_{m-1}(i) \quad (6)$$

By the induction hypothesis, we can write $P_{m-1}(X) = a_0 + a_1 X + \dots + a_{m-1} X^{m-1}$, for some $a_i \in \square$ with $a_{m-1} \neq 0$. Then (6) becomes:

$$P_m(n) = 2^m + a_0 \cdot n + P_{m-1}(n) + a_1 \sum_{i=1}^n i + \dots + a_{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^n i^{m-1}$$

The sum $S_k(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n i^k$ is well-known to be expressible as a polynomial of degree $k+1$ in n with rational coefficients. This statement can easily be proven by induction on k , using the recurrence relation:

$$(n+1)^{k+1} = 1 + \binom{k+1}{1} S_k(n) + \binom{k+1}{2} S_{k-1}(n) + \dots + \binom{k+1}{k} S_1(n) + n$$

So $P_m(n) = 2^m + a_0 \cdot n + a_1 S_1(n) + \dots + a_{m-1} S_{m-1}(n) + P_{m-1}(n)$ is a polynomial of degree m in n as an inspection of the degrees in n of the terms in the sum reveals. Its coefficients are rational. The relation

$$P_m(n) = 2^m + P_{m-1}(n) + \sum_{i=1}^n P_{m-1}(i)$$

defines $P_m(n)$ if $P_{m-1}(n)$ is given; $P_m(n)$ thus defined satisfies (5), which achieves the proof of existence of the sequence $(P_m)_{m \geq 0}$. \square

Explicit expressions for $P_m(n)$ can be found by applying the recurrence relation (6) (using a computer algebra program). We obtain:

$$P_1(n) = 2n + 4$$

$$P_2(n) = n^2 + 7n + 8$$

$$P_3(n) = \frac{1}{3}n^3 + 5n^2 + \frac{56}{3}n + 16$$

$$P_4(n) = \frac{1}{12}n^4 + \frac{13}{6}n^3 + \frac{203}{12}n^2 + \frac{269}{6}n + 32$$

$$P_5(n) = \frac{1}{60}n^5 + \frac{2}{3}n^4 + \frac{107}{12}n^3 + \frac{145}{3}n^2 + \frac{1531}{15}n + 64$$

$$P_6(n) = \frac{1}{360}n^6 + \frac{19}{120}n^5 + \frac{233}{72}n^4 + \frac{713}{24}n^3 + \frac{22637}{180}n^2 + \frac{3377}{15}n + 128$$

$$P_{10}(n) = \frac{1}{1814400}n^{10} + \frac{31}{362880}n^9 + \frac{47}{8640}n^8 + \frac{2249}{12096}n^7 + \frac{323413}{86400}n^6 + \frac{793027}{17280}n^5 + \frac{15547277}{45360}n^4 \\ + \frac{27538801}{18144}n^3 + \frac{2250299}{600}n^2 + \frac{1442426}{315}n + 2048$$

Accordingly, one obtains explicit formulas for $\gamma_{n,m}$ and $f_{n,m}$. The expressions obtained for $\gamma_{n,m}$ with $m \leq 5$ agree with those in [9], where they are stated without proof for $m > 3$. The formulas for $m \geq 6$ are new, as far as I know.

Using symbolic computation software, it is relatively easy to write a program that, with m as an input, outputs an expression for $P_m(n)$ (and all $P_k(n)$ with $k < m$). Here is an example in Maple 6 (which produced the output above):

```
> restart; poly:=proc(m)
> if m=0 then 2
> else 2^m+poly(m-1)+sum(eval(poly(m-1),n=i),i=1..n);
> end if
> end;
> printf("Enter the degree of the polynomial:\n");
> m:=scanf(%e);
> for j from 1 to op(1,m) do
> p[j](n)=sort(collect(poly(j),n));
> end do;
```

An interesting phenomenon is that *all polynomials P_m with $m \leq 15$ are irreducible* (again, this was determined using Maple). It is an open problem if this is true for all m .

The method of counting described here can be carried to the case of a cyclic group G having 3 (or more) distinct prime divisors, for instance $|G| = p^a q^b r^c$. One can easily obtain a recurrence relation similar to (1) for the number $\gamma_{a,b,c}$ of chains of subgroups of G , but the actual computations for explicit formulas are more difficult.

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